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Differential treatment of boreal forest biome by forest stewardship council

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DIFFERENTIAL TREATMENT OF BOREAL FOREST BIOME BY FOREST
STEWARDSHIP COUNCIL

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ABSTRACT

This thesis examines the conduct of Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) regarding the certification stringency in the boreal biome. Certification is less stringent in Russia as compared to other boreal nations; Canada, Sweden, Norway and Finland. Further, it will elaborate on Motion 65 by FSC on how it relates to the main topic. According to recent studies, FSC certification auditing is less thorough in Russia as compared to Canada and Nordic Countries. In Canada and Nordic countries, FSC is a very stringent and scrupulous body, making certificate holders work hard to keep their status. In 2014, FSC has released its Motion 65 to protect Intact Forest Landscapes, and a set of recommendations followed in late 2016. If approved, Motion 65 would unequally affect Canada and Nordic Countries as compared to Russia. Forest Code of the Russian Federation does not recognize IFLs, which are key principle of Motion 65. This thesis concluded that part of the problem is that while forestry regulations of Canada and Nordic countries are in tandem with FSC guidelines, Russia's laws conflict with them. Another part of the issue is lack of equity distribution in Russia as compared to Canada and Nordic Countries. The thesis suggests that FSC needs to develop a strategy specifically tailored to Russia, in order to achieve levels of compliance and socioeconomic equity similar to Canada and Nordic Countries.

Key Words: certification, compliance, equity, forest, IFL, Forest Code, FSC.

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INTRODUCTION

This thesis will study effects of Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) on forestry in boreal Canada, Finland, Norway, Sweden, and Russia. Ecosystems are similar throughout the boreal biome and certification of forestry practices should reflect that. In Russia however, FSC does not audit the companies as thorough as in other aforementioned boreal countries, making it possible for a portion of illegally harvested wood to get certified. Furthermore, FSCs lack of effort to enforce its policies on equitable distribution of welfare generated by forestry operations exacerbates pre existing socioeconomic problems surrounding forestry in Russia (Maletz and Tysiachniouk 2009; Lukashevich et al. 2016; Ulybina and Fennell (2013).

In 2014, FSC together with Greenpeace have drafted what is now known as ‘Motion 65’ (see Appendix), a document whose purpose is to significantly reduce forestry operations in Intact Forest Landscapes (IFL). Forest Code of Russian Federation does not recognize IFLs. According to Tysiachniouk and McDermott (2016) Russian branch of FSC has been lacking in its efforts to reduce logging in high conservation value forests that usually fall within IFLs. This issue will be further discussed in this thesis as it related to the main objective of the thesis.

This thesis will attempt to answer the following question;

- Does FSC in Russian Federation follow a more lenient approach towards certification than in Canada and a block of Nordic countries, namely Norway, Sweden, and Finland, and to what effects?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Boreal biome, sometimes called 'taiga', is the largest terrestrial biome in the world. Circumpolar in the northern parts of the world, it encompasses parts of Canada, U.S.A., Norway, Sweden, Finland, and Russia. Same genres, disturbance regimes, wildlife, climate, and processes occur within its distribution (Frelich 2013).

After Rio Summit in 1993, many countries feared that their autonomy would be in jeopardy and decided not to designate any single governmental organisation as the policing entity. FSC was created as an independent non-governmental organization (NGO) to fulfill that position. Getting a certification was not compulsory, and it needed to be 'sold' to forest companies. Moore et al. (2012) studied the ways FSC used various advertising strategies, supporters, market influence, and activists to incline forest companies to adopt its certification in North America. The study included an email survey intended for forest company managers across North America. According to the results of the study, when it comes to forest certifications most managers believe that benefits of certifying the forest outweigh the costs of conforming to certification. The study further focused on the way certification changed forestry practices in North America (Moore et al. 2012).

Towards the end of the 20th century, multi stakeholder initiatives (MSI) in forest sector became a new type of forest management. Creation of MSIs is viewed as a transitional process, a way to involve public in a 'democratic' process of managing forests. FSC was one of the first MSIs (Moog et al. 2015).

FSC has established itself as the most influential and recognized forest certification entity. Without its seal, many forest companies and countries do not have access to markets. Although the company deems certification as voluntary, it did everything in its power to restrict uncertified wood from entering the market. Its certification seems to yield better results in more developed countries such as Canada and Europe, while failed to diminish illegal logging in less developed countries (Schepers 2010). Having its successes in the past, FSC has not resolved socio economic problems that threaten biodiversity and sustainability. The whole idea of an MSI model is being undermined by FSCs example (Moog et al. 2015).

After the creation of FSC, some businesses found it too stringent and decided to create their own ‘business oriented certification’ to make forests certified without sacrificing more money. Over the years, FSC has won as it appealed to general population, indigenous groups, and environmental advocates. The problem is that certification has depended on a socio-economic level of development. It worked best in the developed world such as Canada and Nordic countries where infrastructure, governmental incentives, subsidies, and management practices were advanced enough to make forestry profitable under the stringent FSC rules. In Russia, on the other hand, FSC certification has not performed as well. Although Russia occupies the same forest biome as Canada, Norway, Finland, and Sweden, it does not possess the same levels of industrial and socioeconomic development (Cashore et al. 2006).

Trishkin et al. (2014) studies the motivation for adopting forest certification in the northwest regions of Russia. According to the study, most companies acquired certification due to market demand. They also noted that getting certified was a harsh

change for them; previously there were no customer or governmental standards to adhere to. Companies that were not certified communicated that their managerial departments were too disorganized to be able to adopt and adhere to a certification scheme. Study also notes that there is lack of understanding among the companies, and the public of what forest certification is and what its goals are (Trishkin et al. 2014).

A new Forest Code has been passed in Russia in 2007. It emphasizes production and state profit rather than biodiversity (Forest Code of the Russian Federation, 2007; Hitchcock 2010). Furthermore according to Lukashevich et al. (2016) many FSC directives conflict with Forest Code, 'High Conservation Value Forests' for example usually located in the IFLs are not recognized by the code. Ulybina and Fennell (2013), found that forest certification in Russia has only benefited forestry companies, by being more internationally competitive, having insignificant effect on sustainability and socioeconomic benefits. As well, according to Ulybina and Fennell (2013) auditors would try to win the auditing market by selling low-quality and cheap audits. People fear that certification would create a false sense of progress and curb actual modernization of the forest sector (Ulybina and Fennell 2013). While there is a divide between state and FSC rules in Russia, it is the opposite in Canada and the Nordic Countries. A study by Sverdrup-Thygeson et al. (2014) in Norway cannot conclude if the results of improved sustainability were due to certification or increased awareness of sustainable forest practices and forest owner education. Sverdrup-Thygeson et al. (2014) also notes that awareness of sustainable forestry and biodiversity in both Sweden and Finland increased since the early 1990s, paving the road for development and adoption of forest certification. Johansson and Lidestav (2011) describe a transition from government to

governance, where government acts as a facilitator while communities, NGOs, and stakeholders together play a role of decision makers. The trend is common in Nordic countries and most of Europe (Sverdrup-Thygeson et al. 2014). Study by Roberge et al. (2011) in Quebec show that biodiversity indicators in areas that were certified were not significantly different compared to those in non-certified areas. Forest certification in most cases is a means to acquire credibility and competitiveness (Roberge et al. 2011).

Forest certification in Russia according to FSC is mostly restricted to large companies; middle sized and small sized companies are usually not certified. This is usually due to unaffordable certification prices (Lukashevich et al. 2016). In Sweden, half of the productive forest is owned by 329300 private owners (Table 1). According to Follo et al. (2015), in 2011 Norwegian productive forest land of 2.5 ha or greater were owned by around 131,785 owners, 116,002 private, 1,951 un-personal, and 13832 un-identified or dead. In Finland, around 60 percent of forestry is owned by 632,000 families and private individuals (with estates larger than 2 ha), state owns 25%, 9% industries, and 5% falls under 'others' (Finnish Forest Association 2014). In Canada 94% of forestland is public, 6% private, and 4% owned by the federal government (Natural Resources Canada 2017b). In Russian Federation all forestland is publicly owned (FAO 2010).

Table 1. Productive forest ownership in Sweden by area (Johansson and Lidestav 2011)

Owner	Area
Private	51%
Corporate	25%
State	17%
Church, county councils, municipalities	7%

Russia's proximity to China makes it a lucrative business to sell unprocessed wood in high quantities. Such issues as corruption, aging and crumbling infrastructure, low processing capacity and lack of proper financial and judicial support further hinder development of forestry sector inside Russia (Simeone 2012; Ulybina and Fennell 2013). Investments associated with forest certification and new tax on export of unprocessed wood makes illegal logging a more desired type of enterprise (Simeone 2012). People in Russia do not see forest certification as a good thing. For them it is a novel thing 'imposed' by 'The West' to control access to market, or a way to make more money. People in Russia do not associate forest certification with sustainability and biodiversity; most people do not even understand the point biodiversity conservation (Ulybina and Fennell 2013).

Russia contains a quarter of the world's forests and FSC as the dominant forest certification scheme. (Ulybina and Fennell 2013). The greatest issue FSC has in Russia is its lax certification efforts. Between 2015 and 2016, there have been 7178 non-compliances according to FSC (Lukashevich et al. 2016). Out of those non-compliances, 23% of total indicators reported were indicator 1.6.6.: "The requirements of the Russian National FSC Standard shall be explained to staff", i.e., no personnel training. Another 32% out of all non-compliance indicators was 2.1.2.: "The boundaries of the area shall be mapped and can be identified on site" -- banners and information was not displayed at the site for the forest area users to report any fires, illegal activities, or any other issues with the forest (Lukashevich et al. 2016). Another 21% of indicators reported for non compliance involved withholding information from the public, indicator 7.4.1.: "The primary elements of the forest management plan except confidential information shall be

available to public” (Lukashevich et al. 2016). According to audits carried out by Accreditation Services International (2017) since 2015, Russia has had disproportionately larger amount of non-conformities to FSC rules than the rest countries in the study; Russia (23), Canada (12), Finland (8), Sweden (3), and Norway (2). According to Lukashevich et al. (2016), most non-compliance cases in Russia are due to contradictions between FSC guidelines and Russian Forest Code, high audit costs, and lack of governmental incentives.

Before the collapse of Soviet Union, forestry was taken up by *lespromkhozes*, state forestry companies that acted as a local government overseeing the needs of nearby communities. *Lespromkhozes* were building roads, schools, libraries, and overseeing social events in the area. People felt connected and taken care of (Pipponen 1999). Once Soviet Union ceased to exist, forest companies were run from distant offices and the needs of the communities taken care of by the state. This disconnected people from forestry and made them disinterested in forestry affairs. Further, decision making of the forestry companies has shifted to large transnational corporations thus restricting local community involvement and reducing their decision-making ability even further. Equity was transferred from the local communities to corporations (Tysiachniouk and McDermott 2016). As with the case in Karelia with Investlesprom (Russian origin transnational corporation), unless local communities are backed by large NGO's to help negotiate their rights, logging companies can interpret context of FSC certification to exclude local involvement as much as possible in favour of increased profit. Communities that do not have the backing of large transnational NGOs or are too small to defend themselves are the ones disadvantaged the most (Tysiachniouk and

McDermott 2016).

The work by Kortelainen (2012) describes how new approaches of trans-boundary forest governance affect forestry in Russia. With the introduction of forest certification and work of various NGOs Russian forest sector started adopting transnational network-space forest governance. The study outlines benefits and drawbacks of this system in Russia. Creation of closed FSC controlled trans-boundary networks ensures that political borders do not interfere with proper management of timber resources. On the other hand FSC stamp on wood coming from this network does not state the specific location of harvest and could come from any part of the said network (Kortelainen 2012).

FSC certification by area can be seen in Figure 1 for Canada and Figure 2 for Russia. Table 2 describes area certified under FSC for Canada, Finland, Norway, Russia, and Sweden. According to Certification Canada (2016), FSC certification in Canada has decreased in favour of Sustainable Forestry Initiative (SFI).

Table 2 FSC certification data (Borealforests.org;[FFA] 2016; FSC 2017; Natural Resources Canada 2017a; The Guardian 2009).

Country	Canada	Finland	Norway	Russia	Sweden
FSC certified (ha)	54,672,515	1,365,799	444,426	42,924,636	12,142,642
Productive forest (million ha)	232	20.3	7.2	416.925	23.256
% Certified Managed	24%	7%	6%	10%	52%
Total Forest (million ha)	347	22.500	9.387	763.5	27.528

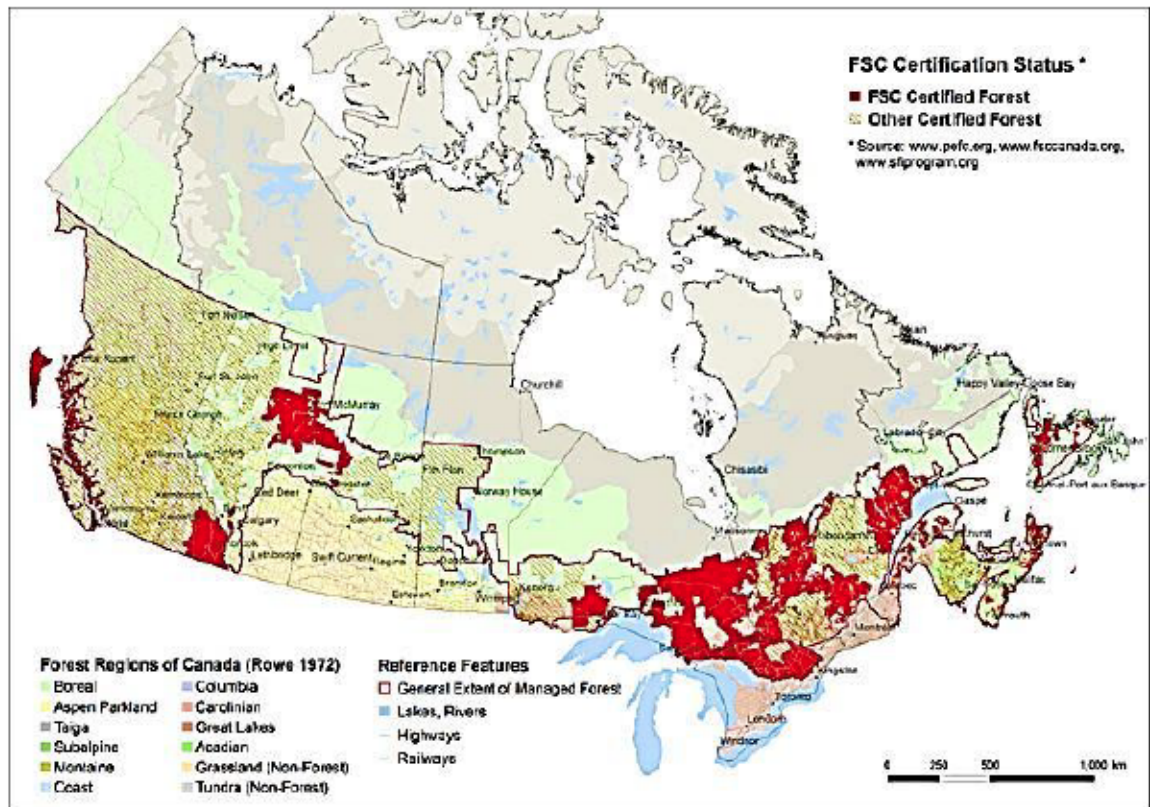


Figure 1 FSC zones in Canada (Certification Canada 2015).

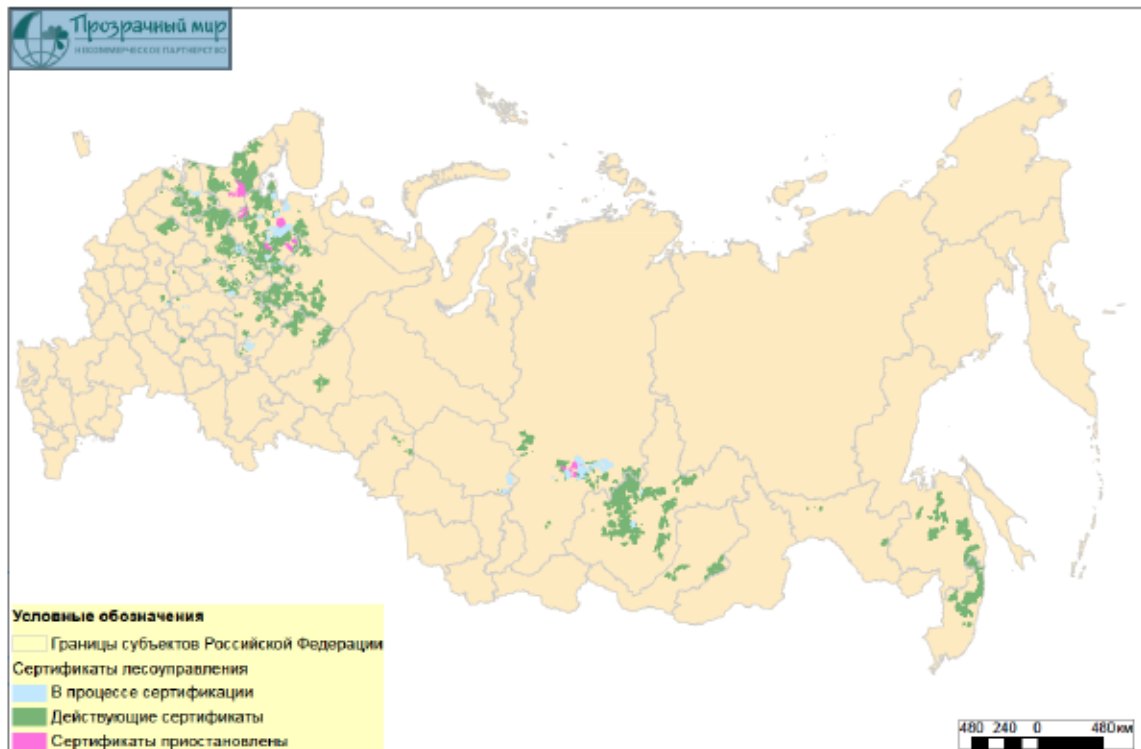


Figure 2 FSC Zones in Russia as of October 1 2013 (Blank - borders of subjects to Russian Federation; Blue - in progress of certification; Green – certified; Magenta - certification halted) (FSC 2013).

Intact Forest Landscape (IFL) will be the key feature behind the Motion 65 proposed by FSC. There are many different views on what defines an Intact Forest Landscape. Potapov et al. (2017b) describes IFL as an unbroken area of natural forest with little to no human disturbance that is at least 50,000 ha with a minimum 10 km breadth and minimum 2 km wide corridors linking different patches. It falls under FSCs Principle 9, which deals with ‘high conservation value’ (HCV) forests (FSC 2015). Definition of HCV-2 is: “Globally, regionally or nationally significant large landscape level forest areas” (Tysiachniouk and McDermott 2016). Russian boreal contains quite a substantial number of IFLs -- 28.3% of Russian forests which are considered a critical world

heritage are IFLs. However, Forestry Code of Russian Federation does not recognize IFLs (Lukashevich et al. 2016; Tysiachniouk and McDermott 2016). In 2014 the Russian branch of Greenpeace separated from FSC in order to pressure it to change its certification requirements towards protecting IFL's. According to Tysiachniouk, (2009) FSC has been quite lax in implementing its own policy towards protecting IFL's in Russia (Tysiachniouk and McDermott 2016). Tysiachniouk and McDermott (2016) noted limited involvement from local actors in the decision-making regarding HCVs, further underlining distance between local communities and FSC, although state oversight slightly improved local involvement. According to FSC data, over 85% of Canadian boreal forest is fragmented and only 15% is IFLs. Furthermore, 80% of the intact forest in any given Forest Management Unit (FMU) will be considered an IFL (Potapov et al. 2008). The motion will merge four Canadian standards (B-C, National Boreal, Maritimes, Great Lakes/St. Lawrence) into one. In Sweden, 3% of total forest zone is considered an IFL, 1.4% in Norway, and 3.1% in Finland (Potapov et al. 2017a). FSC based their IFL standards on the study by Potapov et al. (2008). Potapov et al. (2008) defined an IFL, basing their work on papers by Noss (1990), Anderson (1991), and Bryant et al. (1997). Neither Noss (1990), Anderson (1991), nor Bryant et al. (1997) provided any empirical data that would help to define an IFL.

DISCUSSION

Russia is different from Canada, Finland, Norway, and Sweden. Mostly due to its distinct political and socioeconomic history. During the era of Soviet Union local communities were taken care of by leskhoz, state owned forestry companies. All the needs of a community would be met by leskhoz, including timber, fuel wood, schools, infrastructure, employment, and governance. Privatization of forestry by large transnational holding companies created a divide between local communities and forestry. Every decision was made at a corporate level. People lost power of agency, equity, and sense of connection. According to the case in Karelia (NW Russia), certification does little to improve local equity and welfare distribution. Procedural equity did not improve as well for local population. Large transnational holding companies would interpret FSC guidelines in favour of their own profit rather than equity for the local communities. In large communities in NW Russia, local population can secure their rights through series of negotiations with help of large NGOs backed by transnational advocacy groups. These rights were supposed to be secured by FSC. Small communities that do not have much negotiating power or backing of powerful NGOs are the most disadvantaged.

When it comes to FSC in Russia, stringency of audits and oversight of certificate issuing is much more lax as compared to other parts of the boreal. There are a number of reasons for that. It all comes down to local population. FSC in Russia is seen as more of an obstruction rather than a goal. Canada and Nordic countries have significantly different political and socioeconomic backgrounds as compared to Russia so it is

illogical to expect similar results from similar tactics. To be able to achieve a level of conformity similar to Canada and Nordic Countries, FSC has to tailor its tactics to Russia.

Involvement of communities in forestry has a positive effect on certification compliance. When people have agency and equity they start to get involved, this in effect causes awareness of the benefits that come with certification. Right now people in Russia associate FSC with mercantilist forest corporations that acquire it for the profit, or economic barriers created by the Western countries to control Russia. Good stewardship starts with the people, FSC was born in the western world, its principles are foreign and untrustworthy for the people that lived in a socialist structure.

In Canada and Nordic Countries forest certification was adopted naturally as it evolved. It started with education, and increase in awareness about biodiversity and sustainability. It was easier to implement certification where people have better agency and meaningful connection to the land. Where people have more agency, equity and socioeconomic problems do not persist. FSC guidelines are in tandem with state forestry guidelines in Canada and Nordic countries such as Norway, Sweden, and Finland. In Russian Federation laws are not in sync with FSC standards. The Forestry Code of Russian Federation for example conflicts with FSC guidelines, particularly IFLs.

No empirical data behind the development of definition of an IFL is leaving some people concerned over the legitimacy of the description of the definition. Thus adding to the problem of adherence to the standard. Non-recognition of an IFL by the Forestry Code of the Russian Federation adds to this concern. FSCs HCV-2 standard (Falling

under principle 9 of FSC's Principles and Criteria) that deals with IFLs gets under implemented in Russia. It must be noted that 28.3% of Russian forestland is IFL. This situation led to Russian office of Greenpeace dropping its FSC membership in order to pressure FSC from the outside. It is yet unknown if Motion 65 would improve the situation or exacerbate the problem of FSC stringency in Russia. Motion 65 would have different effect in the other countries mentioned. Nordic countries are mostly privately owned and their forests are heavily managed which lessens effects of Motion 65. In Sweden, 3% of total forest zone is considered an IFL, 1.4% in Norway, and 3.1% in Finland. Forestland in Canada is 15% IFL. In Canada however, FSC certification does not hold a large enough share to cause too many problems for forestry. In fact, share of FSC certification in Canada has been dropping over the last few years in favour of other certification bodies.

CONCLUSION

As Compared to Canada and Nordic countries, FSC efforts in Russia show lower stringency in auditing, certification compliance, biodiversity, and improvement in socioeconomic wellbeing of local communities. Special concern should be addressed to protection of HCV-2 under principle 9 of the FSC Principles and Criteria. FSC needs to adapt its tactics to solve certification difficulties caused by socioeconomic conditions in Russia that also pose the biggest threat to sustainability and biodiversity.

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APPENDIX

Motions for the 2014 FSC General Assembly

AMENDED: 11 September 2014			
Title: High Conservation Value 2 (HCV2) – Intact forest landscapes (IFL) protection			Policy Motion Number: 65
Original language of the motion: English			
PROPOSED BY:			
Name:	Judy Rodrigues		
Organization:	Greenpeace International		
Chamber:	Environmental North		
1. SECONDED BY:		2. SECONDED BY:	
Name:	Roberto Waack	Name:	Jens Holm Kanstrup
Organization:	AMATA S/A	Organization:	Verdens Skove / Forests of the World
Chamber:	Economic South	Chamber:	Environmental North
<p>Policy Motion (high-level action request):</p> <p>To ensure the implementation of Principle 9 and the protection of Intact Forest Landscapes - the world's remaining large undisturbed forest areas contained in HCV2 - across FSC certified operations, FSC will direct Standard Development Groups (SDGs) and Certification Bodies (CBs), where no SDG exists, to develop, modify, or strengthen (according to standards revision processes) indicators within National Standards and CB standards that aim to protect the vast majorities of IFLs. Taking into account scale, intensity and risk as well as respecting the activities, customary and legal rights of traditional forest communities, this process will:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Be based on best available, independent, peer-reviewed science and other information; 2) Take into consideration IFL degradation in FSC FMUs since 2000; 3) Respect Free Prior and Informed Consent of indigenous Peoples, traditional peoples and forest dependent communities in affected FMUs; 4) Within IFL cores ensure that Certificate Holders implement protection measures (for example, set-asides, legal protected areas, conservation reserves, deferrals, community reserves, indigenous protected areas etc.) ensuring management for intactness, in areas within their control; 5) Require a comparative assessment of the viability and effectiveness of alternative land use options, in maintaining and enhancing intactness of IFLs including in areas outside FSC FMUs (landscape level); 6) In limited circumstances, allow limited development of IFL cores if such operations produce clear, substantial, additional, long-term conservation and social benefits; 7) Where applicable, address the need to reduce timber harvesting rates to reflect any reduction in the timber volume due to removal of IFL areas from harvesting; 8) Prioritize development of low-impact/small scale forest management, non-timber forest products in unallocated IFL areas, and provide first access to local communities an taking into consideration section iii; 9) Promote alternative models for forest management/conservation (for example, ecosystem services etc.) within the IFLs, <p>If by the end of 2016 a relevant standard has not been implemented, a default indicator will apply that mandates the full protection of a core area of each IFL within the management unit. For this purpose, the core area of the IFL will be defined as an area of forest comprising at least 80% of the intact forest landscape falling within the FMU</p>			

ADVICE-20-007-016 V1-0	Advice Note for the interpretation of the default clause of Motion 65
Normative reference	<p>FSC-STD-20-007 V3-0 Forest Management Evaluations, Clause 8.4</p> <p>FSC-STD-01-001 V5-2 FSC Principles and Criteria for Forest Stewardship: Principle 9</p> <p>FSC-STD-60-004 V1-1 Draft 1-0 International Generic Indicators</p> <p>FSC-STD-60-002 V1-0 Structure and Content of National Forest Stewardship Standards</p> <p>FSC-STD-60-006 V1-2 Process Requirements for the Development and Maintenance of National Forest Stewardship Standards</p> <p>FSC-PRO-60-006 V2-0 EN Development and Transfer of NFSS TO FSC P&C V5</p> <p>Motion 65, General Assembly 2014</p> <p>Motion 83, General Assembly 2014</p> <p>BM 72.31 Board Decision on IFL cut-off date</p>
Effective date	01 January 2017
Expiry date	This Advice Note will expire in each country once the National Forest Stewardship Standard or Interim National Standard becomes effective.
Scope	<p>This Advice Note applies to all certificate holders and certification bodies operating in countries where Intact Forest Landscapes exist according to Global Forest Watch maps: Angola, Argentina, Australia, Belize, Bhutan, Bolivia, Brazil, Brunei, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chile, China, Colombia, Congo DRC, Costa Rica, Cote d'Ivoire, Dominican Rep, Ecuador, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Finland, French Guiana, Gabon, Georgia, Guatemala, Guyana, Honduras, India, Indonesia, Japan, Kazakhstan, Laos, Liberia, Madagascar, Malaysia, Mexico, Mongolia, Myanmar, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Norway, Panama, Papua N Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Repl. Congo, Russia, Solomon Islands, Suriname, Sweden, Tanzania, Thailand, Uganda, United States, Venezuela and Vietnam.</p>
Terms & definitions	<p>Intact Forest Landscape (IFL): A territory within today's global extent of forest cover which contains forest and non-forest ecosystems minimally influenced by human economic activity, with an area of at least 500 km² (50,000 ha) and a minimal width of 10 km (measured as the diameter of a circle that is entirely inscribed within the boundaries of the territory) (Source: Intact Forests / Global Forest Watch. Glossary definition as provided on Intact Forest website. 2009-2014).</p> <p><u>Data source:</u> Greenpeace, University of Maryland, World Resources Institute and Transparent World. "Intact Forest Landscapes. 2000/2013" Accessed through Global Forest Watch. www.globalforestwatch.org or a more recent IFL inventory using the same methodology, such as Global Forest Watch Canada.</p> <p>Indigenous Cultural Landscape (ICL): Indigenous Cultural Landscapes are living landscapes to which Indigenous Peoples attribute social, cultural, environmental and economic value because of their enduring relationship with the land, water, fauna, flora, and spirits and their present and future importance to cultural identity. An ICL is characterized by features that have been maintained through long term interactions based on land-care knowledge and adaptive livelihood practices. They are landscapes over which Indigenous Peoples exercise responsibility for stewardship (Drafted by PIPC for Canada, 2016).</p> <p>NOTE: FPIC can be manifested in different ways in national standards. ICL is a voluntary term. SDGs may choose not to use it.</p>

Background	The FSC Board of Directors (EM 72.31, July 2016) has concluded that the Motion 65 default clause cannot be implemented as written in the motion, due to the significant undesired side effects in some of the most important countries for FSC. Therefore, the Board has mandated the Secretariat to revise the default clause as laid out in the 'proposal for the Motion 65 Default Clause' together with the involved Network Partners and the participants in the IFL Solutions Forum held in Bonn on July 6-8 2016.
Intent	The purpose of this Advice Note is to advise certificate holders and certification bodies to minimize further destruction of IFLs before the full set of NFSS or INS indicators for Motion 65 become effective.
Advice	<p>Advice to Certificate Holders and Certification Bodies in IFL countries</p> <p>1. Forest Management operations, including harvesting and road building may proceed in IFLs, if they:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1. Do not impact more than 20% of Intact Forest Landscapes within the Management Unit (MU), and 1.2. Do not reduce any IFLs below the 50,000 ha threshold in the landscape. <p>NOTE: PSU is developing further instructions on road building in IFLs.</p> <p>1.3. Global Forest Watch IFL maps www.globalforestwatch.org, or a more recent IFL inventory using the same methodology, such as Global Forest Watch Canada, shall be used in all regions as a baseline.</p> <p>1.4. Non-conformity with the above clauses 1.1. – 1.3. shall result in Corrective Action Requests.</p>